# Improved CASA model based on satellite remote sensing data: Simulating net primary productivity of Qinghai Lake Basin alpine grassland

Chengyong Wu<sup>1,3</sup>, Kelong Chen<sup>2,3</sup>, Chongyi E<sup>2,3</sup>, Xiaoni You<sup>1</sup>, Dongcai He<sup>1</sup>, Liangbai Hu<sup>1</sup>, Baokang Liu<sup>1</sup>, Runke Wang<sup>1</sup>, Yaya Shi<sup>1</sup>, Chengxiu Li<sup>1</sup>, and Fumei Liu<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>School of Resources and Environmental Engineering, Tianshui Normal University, Tianshui, 741001, China
<sup>2</sup>MOE Key Laboratory of Tibetan Plateau Land Surface Processes and Ecological Conservation / Qinghai Province Key Laboratory of Physical Geography and Environmental Processes, Xining, 810008, China
<sup>3</sup>Academy of Plateau Science and Sustainability, Xining, 810008, China

10 Correspondence to: Chengyong Wu (giswuchengyong@163.com)

Abstract. The Carnegie-Ames-Stanford Approach (CASA) model is widely used to estimate vegetation net primary productivity (NPP) at regional scales. However, the CASA is still driven by multi-source data, e.g., satellite remote sensing (RS) data, and ground observations that are time-consuming to obtain. However, the CASA is still driven by multi-source data, e.g. satellite remote sensing (RS) data, and ground observations that are time-consuming to obtain. However, the consuming to obtain. RS data can conveniently provide real-time regional information and may replace ground observation data to drive CASA model. RS data,

- can conveniently provide real-time surface information at the regional scale, thus replacing ground observation data to drive CASA model. We attempted to improve the CASA model in this study using the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer RS products, the GlobeLand30 RS product, and the Digital Elevation ModelDEM data derived from radar RS and RS products data generated from Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer satellite sensor. We applied it to
- 20 simulate the NPP of alpine grasslands in Qinghai Lake Basin, which is located in the northeastern Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau, China. The accuracy of the RS data driven CASA, with mean absolute percent error (MAPE) of <u>22.1423.32</u>% and root mean square <u>error(error (RMSE)</u> of 26.26-36 g C•m<sup>-2</sup>•month<sup>-1</sup>, was higher than that of the multi-source data driven CASA, with MAPE of <u>44.8049.08</u>% and RMSE of <u>57.4365.21</u> g C•m<sup>-2</sup>•month<sup>-1</sup>. The NPP simulated by RS data driven CASA in July 2020 shows an average value of <u>110.17108.01</u>±26.25–31 g C•m<sup>-2</sup>•month<sup>-1</sup>, which is similar to published results and
- 25 comparable with the measured NPP. The results of this work indicate that simulating alpine grassland NPP with satellite RS data rather than ground observations is feasible. We may provide a workable reference for rapidly simulating grassland, farmland, forest, and other vegetation NPP to satisfy the requirements of <u>precision agriculture</u>, precision livestock farming, accounting carbon stocks, and other applications.

#### **1** Introduction

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30 Net primary productivity (NPP) is defined as the net accumulation of organic matter through photosynthesis by green plants per unit of time and space (Yu et al., 2009). NPP reflects the carbon sink, production, and food supply capacity of an ecosystem (Jiao et al., 2018; Li et al., 2019), so it plays an important role in studying carbon cycles, ecosystem management, grassland productivity (Zhang et al., 2016), crop yields (Wang et al., 2019), climate change (Zhang et al., 2018), and other issues directly or indirectly at both local and global scales (Li et al., 2020). NPP has been the subject of -a great deal of

- 35 attention from academics and governmental agencies (Wang et al., 2017), which is -It is also a necessary input parameter for many models in the research of global change and ecology. Accordingly, it has been recognized as a key indicator by the International Biological Program (IBP) (IBP, Uchijima and Seino, 1985), the International Geosphere Biosphere Program (IGBP, Terrestrial Carbon Working Group, 1998), the Global Change and Terrestrial Ecosystem (GCTE) (, Fang et al., 2003), and the Kyoto Protocol as a key indicator.
- 40 Direct field measurements are time-consuming and costly, so simulation models are generally used to analyzeanalyse NPP (Hadian et al., 2019). Existing NPP simulation models can be roughly split into three categories: climate relative models, process models, and Light Use Efficiency (LUE) models. LUE models include the Carnegie-Ames-Stanford Approach (CASA) model (Potter et al., 1993; Field, et al., 1995), carbon fixation model (Veroustraete et al., 2002), and-carbon flux model (Turner et al., 2006), etc. Among them, the CASA is a process-based mechanistic-model that describes processes of
- 45 carbon exchange between the terrestrial biosphere and atmosphere (Cramer et al., 1999); it has been widely used to simulate regional or continental NPP over hundreds of published studies (Jay et al., 2016).

The parameters of CASA model are total solar radiation (SOL), water stress coefficient (WSC), fraction of absorbed photosynthetically active radiation (FPAR), water stress coefficient (WSC), temperature stress factors  $T_{e1}$  (the temperature at which the plant can perform photosynthetic activities) and  $T_{e2}$  (the temperature at which the plant can efficiently use the

- 50 light), and the maximum possible efficiency (ε<sub>max</sub>). At regional scales, the FPAR is usually calculated by remote sensing (RS) data (e.g., Potter et al., 1993; Pei et al., 2018), and the ε<sub>max</sub> for vegetation types is usually determined by Land-use and land-cover change (LUCC). Wang et al. (2017) used MODIS LUCC product (MCD12Q1) in the CASA model to determine the ε<sub>max</sub> for each vegetation type. At present, the FPAR and ε<sub>max</sub> have been driven by remote sensing (RS) data, T<sub>e1</sub> and T<sub>e2</sub> are usually calculated by the air temperature data from ground meteorological stations through spatial interpolation method.
- 55 SOL, as-a basic driver of CASA model, is usually calculated via Angstrom-Prescott equation or simulated by a solar radiation flux (SolarFlux) model/due to lack of measured data, were usually calculated by Angstrom Prescott equation, or were estimated by solar radiation flux (SolarFlux) model. The Angstrom-Prescott equation (Prescott, 1940) uses measured solar radiation data to determine empirical coefficients a (the ratio of surface solar radiation to astronomical radiation under completely cloudy conditions) and b (the transmission characteristics of clouds to solar radiation), then SOL can be
- 60 calculated using sunshine duration data from ground meteorological station. The Angstrom-Prescott equation (Prescott, 1940) uses measured solar radiation data to determine its empirical coefficients a(the ratio of surface solar radiation to astronomical radiation under the completely cloudy condition) and empirical coefficients b(reflecting the transmission characteristics of clouds to solar radiation), and then calculates SOL using sunshine duration data from ground meteorological station. The empirical coefficients a and b will change as the time and territories change. In addition, this method lacks a meteorological
- 65 basis that weather conditions such as cloudy sky or clear sky are determined by the total cloud cover, are not depended on

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the number of sunshine duration. The SolarFlux model, can simulate SOL, and its simulation precision mainly depends on the accuracy of atmospheric conditions. The SolarFlux model simulates SOL using the key parameter of Digital Elevation Model (DEM) that derived from radar RS, whose simulation precision mainly depends on the accuracy of atmospheric conditions. When <u>When aastronomical solar radiation passes through the atmosphere</u>, it is weakened by atmospheric

- 70 scattering and absorption, and finally transmits to earth surface (so-called so-called surface solar radiation), which means that\_atmospheric conditions significantly affect surface solar radiation. The total cloud cover can greatly affect the atmospheric conditions, so it is helpful that introducing total cloud cover to simulate SOL. However, the SolarFlux model introducing total cloud cover has rarely reported so far. The WSC, another basic driver of the CASA model, is traditionally obtained using a ratio of the actual/estimated evapotranspiration (ET) to the potential evapotranspiration (PET). Initially,
- 75 both ET and PET are determined from a soil moisture submodel.WSC, as another basic driver of CASA model, meaning the availability of water, in traditional studies, was obtained using a ratio of the actual/estimated evapotranspiration (ET) to the potential evapotranspiration (PET). Initially, both ET and PET came from soil moisture submodel. This model needs meteorological temperature and precipitation data as well as soil texture, soil depth, and other soil parameters typically obtained from a soil database or field investigation. ET and PET can also be calculated separately with different simulation
- 80 models and data sources. PET is often calculated by the FAO Penman-Monteith equation (Allen et al., 1998), which needs meteorological observation data as input parameters; ET can be obtained with models based on the complementary relationship of evapotranspiration (Bouchetr, 1963) or other approaches such as the Pike equation (Pike, 1964) This model need the meteorological data of temperature and precipitation, and soil texture, soil depth, and other soil parameters usually obtained from soil database or field investigation. As the study progressed, ET and PET were calculated separately with
- 85 different simulation model and data source. Usually, PET can be calculated by FAO Penman Monteith equation (Allen et al., 1998) that needs meteorological observation data such as minimum temperature, maximum temperature, air temperature, wind speed, relative humidity and sunshine duration. ET can be obtained with models based on complementary relationship of evapotranspiration (Bouchet, 1963) or other approaches such as Pike equation (Pike, 1964). -As such parameters are numerous, difficult to obtain, and complex to calculate, scholars have improved WSC by modifying ET or PET (e.g., Xu and Such 2014).
- 90 Wang, 2016; Zhang et al., 2016; Pei et al., 2018). In view of numerous parameters, difficulty in obtaining, and complicated ealculation, most scholars have improved WSC through modifying the calculation of ET or PET (e.g., Xu and Wang, 2016; Zhang et al., 2016; Pei et al., 2018). A few scholars attempted to introduce RS data for improving WSC, but their techniques still need the support of ground observation data. For examples, Bao et al. (2016) introduced RS data to establish a land-surface water index and ScaledP (the ratio between monthly precipitation amounts and the maximum monthly precipitation
- 95 within the growing season for individual pixels of precipitation) to improve WSC; Liu et al. (2018) improved WSC by the way of combining RS data and measured soil moisture dataA few scholars attempted to introduce RS data for improving WSC, but still need the support of ground observation data, e.g., Bao et al. (2016) introduced RS data and proposed the landsurface water index and the ScaledP (the ratio between monthly precipitation amounts and the maximum monthly precipitation for individual pixels of precipitation) to improve WSC.

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100	In summary, CASA model is still driven by multi-source data, e.g., RS data and ground observations data. The parameter	
	SOL can be simulated with radar RS data while it should be introduced total cloud cover to improve simulation accuracy.	
	The parameters -T <sub>g1</sub> , T <sub>g2</sub> and WSC are dependent on ground meteorological data, soil data and other ground observation	
	points datasome parameters of the CASA model were still obtained from meteorological data, measured solar radiation, soil	
	data and other ground observation points data. Usually. The spatial distributions of these ground observation points are	
105	usually scattered and far apart. In some regions, there may be scant or even no observation stations, which drives down the	
	application of CASA model. Moreover, due to the CASA needing to input continuous raster data, it means that the data of	
	discrete observation points must be converted into continuous raster data of study area, which inevitably takes errors, and in	
	turn affects the accuracy of simulation NPP. In addition, soil field measurements are time-consuming, and the monthly	
	meteorological data and measured solar radiation data from meteorological departments are often published at a time delay,	
110	which makes it impossible to estimate NPP in real time. These factors prevent CASA from satisfying the requirements for	
	accounting carbon stocks or other applications., the spatial distribution of these ground observation points are few and	
	scattered, especially in a small region, there may be only a few or even no observation stations, which affects the application	
	of CASA model. Moreover, due to the CASA need to input continuous raster data, it means that the data of discrete	
	observation points must be convert into continuous raster data of study area, which inevitably takes errors, and in turn affects	
115	the accuracy of simulation NPP. In addition, soil field measurements are time consuming, and the monthly meteorological	
	data and measured solar radiation data from meteorological departments often were published in time-delay, which makes it	
	impossible to estimate NPP in real time, and cannot meet the application requirements of precision agriculture, precision	
	livestock farming, accounting carbon stocks, etc. Unlike ground observation points data, however, Hence the CASA model	
	driven by multi-source data such as meteorology, soil, and RS has notable disadvantages. Compared to these ground	
120	observation points data, satellite RS can rapidly obtain regional land surface data at regional scale. Advancements in satellite	
	sensor technologies and RS algorithms have yielded many LUCC data products (e.g., CCI-LC, MCD12, and GlobeLand30)	
	and quality-controlled RS Moreover, with the development of satellite sensors and RS algorithms, many quality controlled	
	RS products have been produced and are available online. products, which are available online. GlobeLand30, a global	
	LUCC data product, is widely used by scientists and users around the world (Chen et al., 2017). Moderate Resolution	
125	Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) satellite sensor records cloud cover and land surface information, Some MODIS	
	products, e.g., land surface temperature (LST) product, were evaluated in several previous studies (Wan et al., 2002; Zou et	
	al., 2015) and applied in terms of air temperature estimation and other fields (Fu et al., 2011; Qie et al., 2020). Therefore, to	
	drive a CASA model with an entire set of RS data, we hope to used entire RS data to drive CASA model. To achieve this,	
	using the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) RS products, GlobeLand30 product, -and Digital	
130	Elevation Model (DEM) data-derived from radar RS, we attempts to -improve CASA model and its parameters as follows:	
	(1) SOL and driver by total about and the face MODOS M2 and the DEM data (2) EDAD area driver by	

130 Elevation Model (DEM) data derived from radar RS, we attempts to -improve CASA model and its parameters as follows: (1)SOL was driven by total cloud cover data from MOD08\_M3 product and the-DEM data; (2) FPAR was driven by Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) data from MOD13A1 product; (3)T<sub>e1</sub> and T<sub>e2</sub> were driven by land surface

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temperatureLST data from MOD11A2 product; (4)(3)SWC was driven by shortwave infrared reflectance data from MOD09A1 product; (45)E<sub>max</sub> was determined by vegetation types from GlobeLand30 productFPAR was driven by
 Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) data from MOD13A1 product; and (5)the RS data driven CASA model
 The improved CASA that is called RS data driven CASA in this paper, was compared with multi-source data driven CASA, and was tested with multi-source data driven CASA model and the measured NPP of alpine grassland in Qinghai Lake Basin, in the northeast of Qinghai Tibet PlateauQTP, China.

#### 2 Data sources

#### 140 2.1 Study area

Qinghai Lake Basin Basin is located in the northeasternnorth-eastern part of the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau (<u>QTP</u>) (Fig. 1). Its topography varies greatly over an altitude range of 3193-5114 m. It has a cold climate with an average annual air temperature of 1.2 °C (1951-2007). Its main vegetation types are alpine grasslands and alpine meadows, which account for 85.31% of all vegetation types, Qinghai Lake Basin Basin was taken here as a typical empirical study area to test the proposed RS data-driven CASA model under conditions of varied topography and relative single vegetation types.

#### 2.2 Data sources

#### 2.2.1 DEM

DEM data with 90 m spatial resolution was derived from the Shuttle Radar Topography Mission as provided by the Geospatial Data Cloud (http://www.gscloud.cn/). It was aggregated into 500 m spatial resolution on the <u>ARCGIS ArcGIS</u> 10 software platform, then used to calculate SOL.

#### 2.2.2 Solar radiation measurements

There is only one provincial ground solar radiation observation station in the study area. Observation data for the station in 2020 were not yet published at the time of this study, so we obtained its monthly SOL data for 2005, 2010, and 2015 from China Meteorological Data Service Center (http://data.cma.cn/) to verify the SOL simulation.

#### 155 2.2.3 Ground meteorological data

The meteorological data of twenty ground observation stations in the study area and surrounding areas, were obtained from China Meteorological Data Service Center (http://data.cma.cn/) and Qinghai Climate Center, Qinghai Province, China. The set contains average monthly data for years 2005, 2010, 2015, and 2020, including temperature (mean, minimum, maximum), sunshine duration (only for 2020), sunshine percentage, precipitation, wind speed, and relative humidity and served to

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#### 160 calculate traditional SOL, traditional WSC, and input parameters of the multi-source data driven CASA model. These

#### 2.2.4 Land-use and Land-cover changeLUCC data

Land-use and land-cover change data with GlobeLand30 product at 30 m spatial resolution in 2020, as a Geo-information Public Product, were was obtained from GLOBELAND30 (http://www.globallandcover.com/) to identify grassland types and then determine its  $\varepsilon_{max}$ .

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#### -(http://www.globallandcover.com/) to identify grassland types.

MODIS is a key sensor aboard the Terra and Aqua satellites. Terra MODIS and Aqua MODIS are covering the entire earth's surface every one to two days. The Earth Science Data Systems Program generates 8-day, 16-day, monthly, and other timescaled quality-controlled MODIS products. The products MOD11A2, MOD09A1, MOD13Q1, and MOD08M3 were

- 170 obtained from the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA, https://ladsweb.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/search/). MOD 13O1, MOD 09A1, and MOD 11A2, with spatial resolution ranging from 250 m to 1000 m, were resampled to 500 m spatial resolution via bilinear interpolation method, Two images of 16-day products (MOD13Q1) and four images of 8-day products (MOD11A2, MOD09A1) were averaged separately to calculate the monthly CASA parameters. then used to calculate CASA model parameters. MOD08M3 was used to count total cloud cover unwithout necessarily adjusting its 175 spatial resolution.

AMSR2 products, a surface soil moisture data set, have been evaluated in several previous studies\_-and compared quite well with both observational and model simulation data sets from a variety of global test sites (Owe et al., 2008). We obtained the daily LPRM\_AMSR2\_DS\_A\_SOILM3 data of AMSR2 products in July 2020 from the Goddard Distributed Active Archive Center (DAAC, https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/) and averaged them to evaluate our WSC simulation results, and averaged together to evaluate the simulation results of WSC.

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#### 2.2.6 Field observation data

The field observation NPP data were surveyed via quadrat method. Referencing the Technical regulations-Regulations for Survey and Collection Biomass of Forest Carbon Pools (SACINFO, 2021) and the technical specificationother approaches of for field observation of grassland ecosystemground survey of grass NPP (Ministry of Ecology and Environment, PRC, 2021).

185 we designed three 1 m  $\times$  1 m quadrats were designed in the corner of square sample plots 25 m  $\times$  25 m in size. The average NPP values of these three quadrats was regarded as the NPP value of the sample plot. All vegetation above ground in the quadrat was cut with scissors and placed into self-sealing bags, then placed into an oven at 105 °C, baked for 15 min, and dried at 65 °C until reaching a constant dry biomass value. The dry aboveground biomass (AGB) value was converted to NPP as follows (Zhang, 2016):

190 
$$NPP = AGB \times C(1 + SR)$$

\_(1)

where *C* is carbon content coefficient converting biomass to NPP. It does not exceed 40% for herbaceous plants in the Tree-River Headwaters Region, Qinghai Tibetan PlateauQTP (Sun et al., 2017), and was set to 37.13% here according to the average carbon content of herbaceous plants (Zheng et al., 2007). *SR* represents the ratio of above-ground biomass to belowground biomass. Liu et al. (2020) reported that the average root-shoot ratio (the ratio of below-ground and above-ground biomass) of alpine grassland is 6.87, so *SR* was set to 1.00/6.87, namely *SR* equals 0.146 in this case.

From July 23 to July 27, 2020, we investigated a total of 30 quadrats and obtained ten samples of NPP data to validate the RS data -driven CASA model (Table 4).

#### **3 Methods**

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## 3.1 CASA model

200 The CASA model incorporates meteorology, environment, and soil factors to simulate the physiological process of vegetation absorbing photosynthetically available radiation and transforming it into organic carbon. The model is given as follows (Potter et al., 1993; Wang et al., 2017):

 $NPP(x,t) = 0.5 \times SOL(x,t) \times FPAR(x,t) \times T_{\varepsilon_1} \times T_{\varepsilon_2} \times WSC(x,t) \times \varepsilon_{max} ,$ (2)

where *NPP* is the net primary production (g C•m<sup>2</sup>•month<sup>-1</sup>); 0.5 represents the proportion of the radiation which can absorbed by plants(0.4-0.7 um); *SOL*(x,t) is the total solar radiation incident on grid cell x in a given month (MJ•m<sup>-2</sup>•month<sup>-1</sup>); *FPAR*(x,t) is the fraction of absorbed photosynthetically active radiation on grid cell x in a month;  $T_{\varepsilon l}$  and  $T_{\varepsilon 2\tau}$ - are the temperature stress factors, representing account for the effect of high and low temperature on light utilization efficiency, respectively; *WSC*(x,t) is the water stress coefficient on grid cell x in a month; and  $\varepsilon_{max}$  is the maximum possible efficiency 210 (g C•MJ<sup>-1</sup>) under ideal conditions (no-stress temperature, no-stress water).

#### 3.2 Improving CASA parameters with RS data

The RS data utilized here to improve CASA parameters are listed in Table 1. We focused specifically on improving the parameters SOL and WSC.

### 3.2.1 Calculation SOL by introducing RS total cloud cover

215 SolarFlux models (Hetrick et al., 1993; Kumar et al., 1997; Fu and Rich, 2002), which input DEM parameters and compute solar radiation over large areas, have been implemented for commercially available GIS software such as ARC/INFO, <u>ARCGISArcGIS</u>, and Genasys. The solar radiation module of <u>ARCGIS-ArcGIS</u> software takes into account the influence of atmospheric conditions, latitude, altitude, solar zenith angle and azimuth angle, terrain shade, slope, and aspect. The atmospheric conditions relevant to the present study were determined by the parameters diffuse\_proportion and

- transmittivity. The diffuse\_proportion is the fraction of global normal radiation flux that is diffused, which is expressed as a values from 0 to 1. Transmittivity, the fraction of radiation that passes through the atmosphere, ranges from 0 (no transmission) to 1 (all transmission) (ESRI, 2021).
- There are distinct differences between diffuse\_proportion and transmittivity on in both clear and cloudy days (i.e., dependent on total cloud cover). The accurate determination of atmospheric conditions is the key to accurately estimating SOL. We
- 225 introduced satellite total cloud cover to classify weather conditions, then determined the corresponding diffuse\_proportion and transmittivity values. The total cloud cover data from the MOD08\_M3 product, ranging from 0 (where the sky is completely clear) to 10,000 (where the sky is completely covered by clouds), was divided by 1,000 to create ten levels. For each level, the diffuse\_proportion and transmittivity were determined according to a simple linear relationship (Table 2)\_r.

#### 3.2.2 Improvement WSC using shortwave infrared reflectance

230 WSC reflects the effect of available water content on the solar radiation utilization efficiency of plants, ranging from 0.5 (extreme drought conditions) to 1.0 (extreme humidity). According to the <u>relation\_RS principle</u> that shortwave infrared reflectance is negatively correlated with surface water content, scholars have proposed many water content RS indices. Referring to the form and connotation of the shortwave infrared soil moisture index (SIMI) proposed by Yao et al. (2011), we rewrote the WSC formula as follows:

235 
$$WSC = 0.5 + 0.5(1 - N_{SIMI})$$
, \_(3)

$$N_{SIMI} = (SIMI - SIMI_{min})/(SIMI_{max} - SIMI_{min}), \qquad (4)$$

$$SIMI = 0.7071 \sqrt{SWIR_1^2 + SWIR_2^2}$$
, \_\_\_(5)

where *WSC* is the water stress coefficient; *N*<sub>SIMI</sub> represents the normalized SIMI<sub>7</sub> which values (range ranging from 0 to 1); *SIMI<sub>max</sub>* and *SIMI<sub>min</sub>* are the maximum and minimum value of *SIMI* values, respectively; *SWIR*<sub>1</sub> and *SWIR*<sub>2</sub> are the shortwave infrared reflectance values of band 6 and band 7 from MOD09A1, respectively.

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# 4 Results

4.1 SOL

#### 4.1.1 SOL simulated by Angstrom-Prescott equation

Angstrom Prescott equation, a traditional approach for simulation SOL, was used to calculate tThe SOL of ground meteorological stations. Its<u>stations were obtained using ground meteorological data and Angstrom-Prescott equation (Table</u> <u>1).</u> -empirical coefficients a and b were adopted the monthly coefficients of Liu et al. (2021), and its input parameters S (sunshine percentage) from ground meteorological stations. Natural NeighborNeighbour spatial interpolation approach was applied to convert the SOL of ground stations into grid <del>WSC-</del>SOL over study area (Fig. 2-A).

#### 4.1.2 SOL simulated by improved approach

- 250 The DEM, diffuse\_proportion, and transmittivity determined by MODIS total cloud cover were input into the Solar Radiation module of ARCGIS10 ArcGIS10 software, then the SOL in July of 2020. The SOL in July of 2020 was simulated in Qinghai Lake Basin-(Fig. 2-B). The simulated SOL ranging from 655.42 MJ·m<sup>-2</sup>•month<sup>-1</sup> to 878.03 MJ•m<sup>-2</sup>•month<sup>-1</sup> with an average value of 738.80 MJ·m<sup>-2</sup>·month<sup>-1</sup>. The surface of Qinghai Lake shows the lowest SOL of -695.50 MJ·m<sup>-2</sup>·month<sup>-1</sup>. On the whole, SOL gradually increases along Qinghai Lake from southeast to northwest and are is basically consistent with 255
  - the actual total solar radiation. in Qinghai Lake Basin.

#### 4.1.3 Comparison of two SOL simulation approaches

We analysed the accuracy of simulation SOL from Angstrom-Prescott equation and improved SOL approach with the measured SOL monthly data in 2005, 2010, and 2015 (at present, only the measured SOL data in these period could be collected for the purposes of this study, Table 3). We simulated SOL in the same period and analysed its accuracy 260 accordingly (Table 3). The root mean square error (RMSE) of Angstrom-Prescott equation and our improved approach respectively are 162.24 MJ·m<sup>-2</sup>·month<sup>-1</sup> and 95.38 MJ·m<sup>-2</sup>·month<sup>-1</sup>.Correspondingly, the mean absolute percent error (MAPE) of two approaches are 24.56% and 17.78%, the July RSME are 274.34 MJ·m<sup>-2</sup>·month<sup>-1</sup> and 70.66 MJ·m<sup>-2</sup>·month<sup>-1</sup>. and the July MAPE are 39.53% and 9.25%, respectively. F-Obviously, or simulating SOL, the improved approach significantly increased the accuracy in the study area.for simulating SOL in study area, our improved approach is superior to 265 Angstrom-Prescott equation.

#### 4.2 WSC

#### 4.2.1 Traditional WSC

Traditionally, the WSC was obtained using a ratio of ET to PET. Using ground meteorological data for July 2020, we applied FAO Penman Monteith equation (Allen et al., 1998) to calculate PET and adopted Pike equation (Pike, 1964) to ealculate ET, and then obtained the WSC of ground observation stations were obtained using ground meteorological data for Natural Neighbor Neighbour approach was used to convert the WSC of ground stations into grid WSC over study area (Fig.

#### 4.2.2 Improved WSC

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Using RS-shortwave infrared reflectance- of band 6 and band 7 from MOD09A1from product MOD09A1, We applied formula Eq(3), Eq(4) and Eq(5) and obtained the WSC in July, 2020(Fig. 3-C). The WSC values in July, 2020, were relatively high (>0.86) around Qinghai Lake and in river valleys as well as in the river source areas at higher altitudesaltitudes, which -indicatinges that the ecosystem these places has have sufficient water supply (Fig. 3 B). The desert ecosystem in the east of the Qinghai Lake showed the lowest WSC (0.54-0.68)-, which indicates indicating that the ecosystem has insufficient water supply.

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#### 4.2.3 Comparison of two WSC simulation approaches

280 WSC, a measure of the availability of water to plantsmeasuring the availability of water by plants, essentially in essence, reflects the impact of environmental water content on plants, For grassland ecosystem, to a certain extent, surface soil moisture (SM) can indirectly reflect environmental water content. As a general rule, a higher value of WSC indicates a higher environmental water content. We use (The surface SM data set (LPRM\_AMSR2\_DS\_A\_SOILM3, as mentioned in section 2.2.5, its accuracy have been tested in several previous studies)) was used to evaluate the WSC results simulated by different approaches.

The SM is high in north of Oinghai Lake (Region N), and it is the lowest in the desert ecosystem (Fig. 3-B).

The improved WSC simulation results <u>compared well with compared well with the surface SM in above two regions</u>, <u>Theirits</u> spatial distribution are approximately consistent with the actual water contents in study area, so it is feasible to estimate WSC using RS shortwave infrared reflectance.

#### 290 4.3 NPP

#### 4.3.1 Comparison of multi-source and RS data driven CASA

We used tThe measured NPP obtained in July of 2020 was used to verify the accuracy of multi-source and RS data driven CASA models (Table 4). For the NPP simulated by multi-source data driven CASA (Fig. 4-A), its parameters SOL, SWC, T<sub>s1</sub>, and T<sub>s2</sub> come from ground meteorological data, and the FPAR and c<sub>mes</sub> are as same as the parameters of RS data driven CASA, the relative error (RE) ranges from 30.9820.20% to 85.8868.43%, the MAPE is 44.8049.08%, the absolute error (AE)

- ranges from -<u>112.8824.55</u> g C•m<sup>2</sup> •month<sup>-1</sup> to <u>-16.01141.66</u> g C•m<sup>-2</sup>•month<sup>-1</sup>, and the RMSE is <u>57.43</u>65.21 g C•m<sup>-2</sup>•month<sup>-1</sup>. <sup>1</sup>.For <u>the</u>\_NPP simulated by RS data <u>driven</u>\_CASA, the RE ranges from <u>2.495.66</u>% to <u>47.80</u>50.02%, the MAPE is <u>22.1423.32</u>%, the AE ranges from <u>-34.54-49.08</u> g C•m<sup>-2</sup>•month<sup>-1</sup> to <u>46.9023.89</u> g C•m<sup>-2</sup>•month<sup>-1</sup>, and the RMSE is 26.<del>26.36</del> g C•m<sup>-2</sup>•month<sup>-1</sup>. The simulation results of RS data driven CASA are more in accordance with the measured NPP, <u>RS data</u> 300 driven CASA significantly increased the accuracy of grassland NPP in the study area.<del>, RS data driven CASA is superior to</del>
- the multi-source data driven CASA.

#### 4.3.2 NPP spatial distribution

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The values of NPP simulated by RS data driven CASA The NPP values in July, 2020, are lower in the northwest parts of the basin and east of Qinghai Lake than elsewhere in the study area (Fig. 4-B). The main vegetation in the northwest is Alpine Kobresia humilis meadow plants such as *Saussurea pumila* and *Saussurea alpina*, which have low vegetation productivity and NPP values ranging from 1.090.33 g C·m<sup>-2</sup>·month<sup>-1</sup> to 87.85-52 g C·m<sup>-2</sup>·month<sup>-1</sup>. The main vegetation in the southwest coast of Qinghai Lake and the middle part of the basin are is *Stipa purpurea Griseb* and *Carex infuscata Nees* alpine grasslands, which have higher vegetation productivity and NPP values greater than 87.85-52 g C·m<sup>-2</sup>·month<sup>-1</sup>. NPP appears to decrease from southeast to northwest, which is consistent with the distribution patterns of vegetation type.

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#### 310 5 Discussion and recommendations

#### 5.1 SOL

When astronomical solar radiation passes through the atmosphere, it is weakened by atmospheric scattering and absorption, and finally transmits to earth surface (so called surface solar radiation), which means that atmospheric conditions significantly affect surface solar radiation. Various approaches for simulation SOL consider the atmospheric effects on solar

- 315 radiation from different perspectives. <u>The Angstrom-Prescott equation uses the sunshine duration (or sunshine percentage) to quantify atmospheric effects on solar radiation. We use the parameters of diffuse\_proportion and transmittivity determined by total cloud cover to quantify <u>thesethis</u> effects. The total cloud cover determines the weather conditions <u>and, it also</u> affects the atmospheric conditions. Total cloud cover information can be used to directly determine weather conditions and indirectly determine atmospheric conditions. In this study, weather conditions were classified into ten levels according to the</u>
- 320 satellite total cloud cover. The two important parameters of the SolarFlux model, diffuse\_proportion and transmittivity, were determined for each level on the basis of a linear relationship. The atmospheric conditions could be further divided into 100 or more refined levels to determine the values of diffuse\_proportion and transmittivity under different cloud cover conditions to improve the SOL simulation accuracy.

It is important to note that the SolarFlux model is is designed only for local landscapes/regional scales, so it is generally acceptable to use one latitude value for the whole DEM. It is necessary to divide larger areas into zones of varying latitude as the latitudes exceed 1 degree (ESRI, 2021).

#### 5.2 WSC

Environmental water content can regulate vegetation NPP by affecting the photosynthetic capacity of plants. WSC reflects the influence of environmental water content on vegetation NPP. Traditional WSC simulation approach apply a ratio of ET 330 to PET to measure the availability of environmental water content. ET and PET were can be obtained by different approaches and data sources, resulting in substantial differences in ET and PET even if the same data is used, thus creating differences in WSC.- It means that there are great differences in ET and PET, even if the same data is used, which result in differences in WSC. The WSC result of our improved approach is uniquecertain, as long as the same RS data is input in formula (3), (4), and (5). In addition, the proposed our improved WSC approach has the RS retrieval mechanism of 335 environmental water content. Soil and vegetation water contents are closely related to their shortwave infrared spectral reflectance; small changes in these contents can cause substantial changes in shortwave infrared spectral reflectance. Thus, the RS shortwave infrared band is sensitive to environmental water content and can be used to calculate WSC. Many satellite sensors have are designed with shortwave infrared bands that are extremely sensitive to water content, such as MODIS (1.628-1.652 µm, 2.105-2.155 µm), LandSat 8 (1.560-1.660 µm, 2.100-2.300 µm), Sentinel-2(1.565-1.655 µm, 2.100-2.280 340 μm), and HJ-1-A, B (1.550-1.750 μm). Scholars have developed many RS water content indexes such as SIMI, MSIWSI

(Dong et al., 2015) and SWCI (Du et al., 2007). We modified the WSC using SIMI and the two shortwave infrared bands of

MODIS in this study. The shortwave infrared bands of satellite sensors mentioned above, as well as the MSIWSI, SWCI, or other RS water content indices, can also be considered to calculate WSC.

#### 5.3 Temperature stress factors

345 5.4.1 Rationality of simulation results

### 5.4.2 Rationality of RS mechanism

#### 5.5.54 Uncertainty

According to equation (1), the uncertainty of measured NPP <u>originates from uncertainties income from uncertainty of</u> obtaining AGB, C, and SR. There is randomness in which three quadrats are selected from the four corners of square sample

- 350 plot, resulting in the uncertainty of collection AGB <u>collection</u>. In our case, C and SR are adopted the values reported in the <u>thaninstead of the</u> measured values, which inevitably <u>causedbrings</u> errors. The uncertainty of multi-source data driven CASA and its parameters is mainly caused by spatial interpolation methods. For <u>instance, t</u>The WSC interpolation results from Spline and Kriging method <u>have significantly different values and spatial</u> patternsshowed significantly different values and spatial patterns (Fig. 5). The sample 7 has the maximum errors of
- 355 estimation NPP (Table 4). Its SOL simulated by traditional approach is 271.39 MJ·m<sup>2</sup> •month<sup>-1</sup>, which is obtained by interpolating the SOL of observation stations. The average simulated and measured SOL of Gangcha observation station is 434.59 MJ·m<sup>2</sup> •month<sup>-1</sup> and 692.71 MJ·m<sup>2</sup> •month<sup>-1</sup> respectively (Table 3). The distance of this station from the sample 7 is about 43 km. Hence for sample 7, the errors of multi-source data driven CASA is mainly caused by the parameter SOL and the spatial interpolation method.
- 360 The uncertainty of RS data driven CASA mainly stem from RS product data quality and uncertainty propagation acrossfrom parameters. RS product usually have corresponding data quality assurance describing the uncertainty of each pixel (e.g., the uncertainty of production MOD11A2,-; details regarding quality assurance can be found online atfor details, please see its instruction for quality assurance at: https://icess.eri.ucsb.edu/modis/LstUsrGuide/usrguide\_index.html).The combined uncertainty of simulation NPP is determined by the uncertainty propagation from parameters. In our case, the combined

365 uncertainty of grassland NPP is <u>108.01±26.31110.17±26.25</u> g C•m<sup>-2</sup>•month<sup>-1</sup>.—The <u>combined uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertainty</u><u>uncertai</u>

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#### 6. Conclusions

The traditional CASA model driven by multi-source data such as meteorology, soil, and RS has notable disadvantages. In 370 this study, we attempted to drive the a CASA entirely by RS data. We conducted a case study of alpine grasslands in Oinghai Lake Basin Basin to find that it is feasible to calculate the CASA parameters SOL, WSC,  $T_{e1}$ , and  $T_{e2}$  using RS data. The estimated NPP results were reliable. The main conclusions of this work can be summarized as follows.

· Cloud cover was used to quantify the atmospheric effects on solar radiation. It 'sis only necessary to use DEM and RS total cloud cover data for to simulating simulate SOL. The improved SOL simulation approach has monthly RMSE and MAPE of 95.38 MJ•m<sup>-2</sup>•month<sup>-1</sup> and 17.78%, respectively.

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The improved SOL simulation approach (the monthly RMSE and MAPE respectively were 95.38 MJ+m<sup>-2</sup>+month<sup>-1</sup> and 17.78%) is superior to Angstrom-Preseott equation (a traditional approach for simulation SOL, its monthly RMSE and MAPE respectively were 162.24 MJ•m<sup>-2</sup>•month<sup>-1</sup> and 24.56%).

• The RS data driven CASA, without the support of ground observation data (e.g., soil or meteorology), yields simulations in closer accordance with measured NPP valuesis superior to the multi source data driven CASA, and its simulation results 380 are more in accordance with the measured NPP. The RE ranges from 2.495.66% to 47.8050.02%, the MAPE is 22.1423.32%, the AE ranges from -34.54 - 49.08 g C•m•month<sup>-1</sup> to 46.90 - 23.89 g C•m<sup>-2</sup>•month<sup>-1</sup>, and the RMSE is 26.26 - 36 g C•m<sup>-2</sup>•month<sup>-1</sup>. The simulated NPP values of Kobresia parva in the grazing area and Stipa purpurea are higher than and lower than the respective real values. The NPP simulation values of Kobresia parva in grazing area and Stipa purpurea respectively are 385 higher than and less than its real values. The combined uncertainty of grassland NPP is 108.01 ±26.31+10.17 ±26.25 g C•m<sup>-</sup>

<sup>2</sup>•month<sup>-1</sup>. The uUncertainty propagation and quantification will be the focus of our future workcarried out in future work.

Code and data availability. The code and data are available at supplement.

390 Supplement. The supplement related to this article is available online at: https://doi.org/...../gmd.....-supplement.

Author contributions. CW, CE, KC, XY, and DH contributed to the manuscript writing. CW contributed to the code writing. LH, BL and RW contributed to data processing. CW, YS and FL contributed to field investigation. YS, CL and FL contributed to laboratory experiment.

#### 395

Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Review statement.

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575 Figure 2. Spatial distribution of total solar radiation (SOL) in July, 2020. A, SOL simulated by Angstrom-Prescott equation. B, SOL simulated by improved approach.



Figure 3. Spatial distribution of water stress coefficient (WSC) in July, 2020. A, WSC simulated by traditional method. B, Surface soil moisture of AMSR2 products. C, WSC calculated with RS shortwave infrared band.







600 Figure 5. Comparison map of water stress coefficient (WSC) interpolation results in July, 2020. A, WSC from Spline method. B, WSC from Kriging method.

Table 1. <u>Ca</u>	alculation method and Input input data and calculation method for RS-driv	ven CASA model parameters		<b>带格式的:</b> 两端对齐
		4		( <b>带格式的:</b> 两端对齐
Parameter	RS data driven CASA Input data\calculation method	Multi-source data driven CASA		<b>带格式的:</b> 缩进: 首行缩进: 0.5 字符
		Angstrom-Prescott equation (Prescott, 1940). The		带格式表格
		empirical coefficients a (0.24) and b (0.46) were	$\langle \rangle$	<b>带格式的:</b> 字体:小五
SOL	SolarFlux model. DEM data and MOD08M3 product.	adopted the July coefficients from Liu et al. (2021).	_	【 <b>带格式的:</b> 字体:小五
		Sunshine duration data from ground meteorological		<b>带格式的:</b> 字体:小五
		station.		
		WSC=ET/PET, ET was calculated with Pike		<b>带格式的:</b> 字体:小五
WOO	Band 6 (1.628-1.652 $\mu m)$ and band 7 (2.105-2.155 $\mu m)$ from	equation (Pike, 1964), and PET was calculated with		────────────────────────────────────
wsc	MOD09A1_product.	FAO Penman-Monteith equation (Allen et al.,		
		1998). Ground meteorological data.		
	$T_{\varepsilon 1} = 0.8 + 0.02T_{0pt} - 0.0005(T_{0pt})^2$			( <b>带格式的:</b> 字体:小五
	$T_{\varepsilon 2} = 1.1814 / \left[1 + e^{0.2(T_{opt} - 10 - T)}\right] \times \left[1 / (1 + 1)^{1/2}\right]$	•		<b>带格式的:</b> 左
	$e^{0.3(-T_{opt}-10+T)}$			( <b>带格式的:</b> 字体:六号
	necessary for calculating Tc1 and Tc2; MOD11A2 provides day temperature (Tday) and night temperature (Tnight); T is calculated as T=0.5 (Tday+ Tnight);	The equations of $T_{\epsilon 1}$ and $T_{\epsilon 2}$ are as same as that of		─ 带格式的: 非上标/ 下标
		RS data driven CASA. Monthly average		────────────────────────────────────
$1_{\epsilon 1}, 1_{\epsilon 2}$	Topt is the average value of T in July.	temperature from ground meteorological data as T.		
	(Potter et al., 1993). The set $(T, 0, 5)$	and T <sub>opt</sub> is the average value of T.		
	$\frac{1}{1} \text{ emperature } 1=0.5(1_{\text{day}}+1_{\text{night}}), \text{ day temperature } (1_{\text{day}}) \text{ and night}$			
	temperature (T <sub>night</sub> ) from MOD11A2 product. The optimum			
	temperature T <sub>opt</sub> is the average value of T. The equations of T <sub>el</sub> and			
	$T_{e^2}$ can be found in Potter et al. 1993.			

 $\varepsilon_{max}$ =-0.608g C•MJ<sup>-1</sup>, -maximum possible efficiency of grassland The value of  $\varepsilon_{max}$  is as same as that of RS data ε<sub>max</sub> (Running et al., 2000). driven CASA. **带格式的:**字体:(中文)+中文正文(宋体),(中文)中文(中  $FPAR = \frac{(NDVI - NDVI_{min}) \times (FPAR_{max} - FPAR_{min})}{NDVI} + FPAR_{min} \frac{Myneni}{Myneni}$  and NDVI<sub>max</sub>-NDVI<sub>min</sub> Williams (1994) found a linear relationship between FPAR and NDVI. NDVI from MOD13A1 is used to calculate FPAR (Wang et FPAR FPAR is the same as that of RS data driven CASA. al., 2017) NDVImin and NDVImax is the minimum and maximum of NDVI values 带格式的: 字体: 倾斜 from MOD13A1 product. FPARmax and FPARmin are constants, with 带格式的:字体:倾斜,下标 带格式的: 下标 values of 0.95 and 0.001, respectively (Wang et al., 2017). 带格式的: 字体: 倾斜

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Table 2. Diffuse\_-proportion and transmittivity values under different total cloud cover levels

MODIS total cloud	Weather conditions	Diffuse_proportionDiffuse	Transmittivity	
cover level		proportion		
0	Very clear sky conditions (no clouds)	0.2	0.6	
1	Cloud cover accounts for 1/9 of the whole sky	0.255	0.545	
2	Cloud cover accounts for 2/9 of the whole sky	0.31	0.49	
3	Cloud cover accounts for 3/9 of the whole sky	0.365	0.435	
4	Cloud cover accounts for 4/9 of the whole sky	0.42	0.38	
5	Cloud cover accounts for 5/9 of the whole sky	0.475	0.325	
6	Cloud cover accounts for 6/9 of the whole sky	0.53	0.27	
7	Cloud cover accounts for 7/9 of the whole sky	0.585	0.215	
8	Cloud cover accounts for 8/9 of the whole sky	0.64	0.16	
9	Sky is completely covered by clouds	0.695	0.105	

<sup>625</sup> 

According to the scientific\_-rule\_-that diffuse\_proportion has an inverse relation with transmittivity, the diffuse\_proportion and  $\sqrt{1}$  transmittivity values were set to 0.2 and 0.6, respectively, in the case of a very clear sky conditions. Under other cloud cover conditions, their values were determined according to a simple linear relationship: <u>diffuse\_proportion =0.2+0.055[evel, transmittivity=0.6-0.055[evel, transmittivity</u>

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**带格式的:**字体:倾斜 **带格式的:**字体:倾斜,下标 650 Table 3. Measured versus simulated SOL

<b>D</b> .	Measured SOL	Simulated SOL	ulated SOL		<b>带格式的:</b> 行距:固定值 14 磅		
Date	$(MJ \bullet m^{-2} \bullet month^{-1})$ $(MJ \bullet m^{-2} \bullet month^{-1})$		Absolute error (AE) (MJ•m <sup>-2</sup> •month <sup>-1</sup> )	Relative error (RE) (%)	带格式表格		
Jan-05	374.19	240.95(477.62)	133.24 (-103.43)	35.61 (-27.64)	<b>带格式的:</b> 行距:固定值 14 磅		
Feb-05	427.29	319.23(469.44)	108.06 (-42.15)	25.29 (-9.86)	<b>带格式的:</b> 行距:固定值 14 磅		
Mar-05	573.16	489.16(528.34)	84.00 (44.82)	14.66 (7.82)			
Apr-05	638.45	634.05(465.35)	4.40(173.10)	0.69 (27.11)			
May-05	736.19	731.24(449.60)	4.95 (286.59)	0.67 (38.93)			
Jun-05	663.70	742.68(394.28)	-78.98 (269.42)	-11.90 (40.59)			
Jul-05	626.92	710.94(385.94)	-84.02 (240.98)	-13.40 (38.44)			
Aug-05	603.86	623.86(423.19)	-20.00 (180.67)	-3.31 (29.92)			
Sep-05	493.09	500.53(407.90)	-7.44 (85.19)	-1.51 (17.28)			
Oct-05	486.07	378.72(521.19)	107.35 (-35.12)	22.09 (-7.22)			
Nov-05	398.73	257.36(481.56)	141.37 (-82.83)	35.46 (-20.77)			
Dec-05	353.71	197.43(456.82)	156.28 (-103.11)	44.18 (-29.15)			
SOL in 2005	6375.36	5826.15(5461.24)	549.21 (914.12)	8.61 (14.34)			
Jan-10	354.87	262.42(484.86)	92.45 (-129.99)	26.05 (-36.63)			
Feb-10	409.77	295.56(457.35)	114.21 (-47.58)	27.87 (-11.61)			
Mar-10	555.98	456.14(509.99)	99.84 (45.99)	17.96(8.27)			
Apr-10	647.71	634.05(496.56)	13.66(151.15)	2.11 (23.34)			
May-10	705.07	731.24(449.60)	-26.17 (255.47)	-3.71 (36.23)			

Jun-10	616.64	649.32(368.04)	-32.68 (248.60)	-5.30 (40.32)
Jul-10	741.78	756.37(436.54)	-14.59(305.24)	-1.97 (41.15)
Aug-10	679.30	705.02(443.55)	-25.72 (235.75)	-3.79 (34.71)
Sep-10	524.02	500.53(428.95)	23.49 (95.07)	4.48 (18.14)
Oct-10	496.53	378.72(499.47)	117.81 (-2.94)	23.73 (-0.59)
Nov-10	450.87	299.47(507.51)	151.40 (-56.64)	33.58 (-12.56)
Dec-10	371.24	181.71(446.67)	189.53 (-75.43)	51.05 (-20.32
SOL in 2010	6553.78	5850.55(5529.07)	703.23 (1024.71)	10.73 (15.64)
Jan-15	383.84	240.95(477.62)	142.89 (-93.78)	37.23 (-24.43)
Feb-15	435.62	319.23(453.32)	116.39 (-17.70)	26.72 (-4.06)
Mar-15	602.04	489.16(509.99)	112.88(92.05)	18.75 (15.29)
Apr-15	677.3	634.05(469.81)	43.25 (207.49)	6.39 (30.64)
May-15	664.51	731.24(408.32)	-66.73(256.19)	-10.04 (38.55)
Jun-15	621.22	699.14(375.53)	-77.92 (245.69)	-12.54 (39.55)
Jul-15	709.44	797.23(432.64)	-87.79 (276.80)	-12.37 (39.02)
Aug-15	617.12	705.02(431.33)	-87.90 (185.79)	-14.24 (30.11)
Sep-15	483.73	463.64(407.90)	20.09 (75.83)	4.15 (15.68)
Oct-1015	509.48	432.73(538.56)	76.75 (-29.08)	15.06 (-5.71)
Nov-15	370.52	257.36(459.33)	113.16 (-88.81)	30.54 (-23.97)
Dec-15	338.99	197.43(456.82)	141.56 (-117.83)	41.76 (-34.76)
SOL in 2015	6413.81	5967.18(5421.18)	446.63(992.63)	6.96 (15.48)
Jul-20	/	709.20	/	/

Note: The digits in parentheses "()" are the values of SOL simulated by Angstrom-Prescott equation and the correspondingly 带格式的: 行距: 单倍行距 error values.

# 655 Table 4. Measured versus simulated NPP

Samples	Main vegetation	Longitude	Latitude	Measured NPP (g C•m <sup>-2</sup> •month <sup>-1</sup> )	Simulated NPP (g C•m <sup>-2</sup> •month <sup>-1</sup> )	AE (g C•m <sup>-2</sup> •month <sup>-1</sup> )	RE (%)
1	<del>Kobrecia</del>	99 87586	37.34791	91.66	<u>125.12</u> 131.77	<u>33.46</u> -40.11 (-	<u>36.50</u> 4 <del>3.76</del>
1	<u>Kobresia p</u> arva	<i>))</i> .07500			( <u>56.58</u> <del>57.40</del> )	<u>35.08</u> 34.26)	( <u>38.27</u> <del>37.38</del> )
2	<i>Kobrecia</i>	00.94520	37.37877	98.12	<u>145.02</u> 147.20	<u>46.9-49.080 (-</u>	<u>47.80</u> 50.02
	<u>Kobresia</u> parva	99.84530			( <u>62.68</u> 63.75)	<u>35.44</u> 34.37)	( <u>36.12</u> <del>35.03</del> )
4	<del>Kobrecia</del>	99.30971	37.07243	110.54	<u>116.92</u> <del>128.25</del>	<u>6.38-17.71 (-</u>	<u>5.77</u> 16.02
4	<u>Kobresia</u> parva				( <u>66.86</u> 64.92)	<u>43.68</u> 45.62)	( <u>39.52</u> 41.27)
<i>.</i>	<del>Kobrecia</del>	100 2727	27 42001	100.22	<u>141.13</u> 135.46	<u>32.80-27.13 (-</u>	<u>30.28</u> 25.05
0	<u>Kobresia</u> parva	100.3727	37.42001	108.33	( <u>65.67</u> <del>52.68</del> )	<u>42.66</u> 55.65)	( <u>39.38</u> 51.37)
0	Stipa purpurea	00 67833	37 20655	121.76	<u>107.31</u> 108.80	<u>-14.45</u> <del>12.96</del> (-	<u>11.87</u> 10.64
9		99.07833	37.20033	121.70	( <u>53.08</u> 51.45)	<u>68.68</u> 70.31)	( <u>56.41</u> 57.74)
8	Stipa purpurea	99.63823	37.17360	126.86	<u>117.57</u> 114.80	<u>-9.29</u> <del>12.06</del> ( <u>-</u>	<u>7.32</u> 9.50

					( <u>57.66</u> 59.34)	<u>69.2</u> 67.520)	( <u>54.55</u> 53.22)		
2	Carex	00.40502	27.01262	111.22	<u>113.99</u> 117.51	<u>2.77-6.29 (-</u>	<u>2.49</u> 5.66		
3	pamirensis	99.48505	37.01362	111.22	( <u>55.08</u> 49.44)	<u>56.14</u> 61.78)	( <u>50.48</u> 55.54)		
10	Achnatherum	100 72520	0 36.54971	70.25	<del>101.86</del> 99.27	<u>20.02</u> -22.61 (-	<u>25.26</u> 28.53		
10	splendens	100.73520		19.25	( <u>63.24</u> 54.70)	<u>16.01</u> 24.55)	( <u>20.20</u> 30.98)		
	Achnatherum	100.70610	26.02822	74.00	<u>49.99</u> 50.93	<u>-24.83</u> 23.89 (-	<u>33.19</u> 31.93		
3	splendens		36.93822	74.82	( <u>41.41</u> 4 <del>3.09</del> )	<u>33.41</u> 31.73)	( <u>44.65</u> 4 <u>2.41</u> )		
_	Blysmus	00.80820	00.00020	26.07044	164.05	<u>130.41</u> 45.07	<u>-34.54</u> 19.88 (-	<u>20.94</u> 12.05	
/	sinocompressus	99.89820	30.97944	104.95	( <u>52.07</u> 23.30)	<u>112.88</u> 141.66)	( <u>68.43</u> 85.88)		
	RMSE=26. <del>26-<u>36</u> g</del> C	C•m <sup>-2</sup> •month <sup>-</sup>	<sup>-1</sup> , MAPE= <mark>23.32</mark>	<u>22.14</u> % (RMSE=	<del>55.21<u>57.43</u> g C•m<sup>-2</sup>•mc</del>	onth <sup>-1</sup> , MAPE= <mark>49<u>44</u>.0</mark>	8 <u>80</u> %)	带格式的: 字体: (中文) 宋体, 小五	

Note: The digits in parentheses "()" are the values of NPP simulated by multi-source data driven CASA and the #格式的: 行距: 单倍行距 correspondingly error values.

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# Table 5. Published versus simulated NPP

Vegetation type	Study area	Study period	Mean NPP (g C•m <sup>-2</sup> •a <sup>-1</sup> )	Model\ product	Reporter
Grassland	Three-River Headwaters Region	1988–2004	160.90	GLOPEM- CEVSA	Wang et al., 2009
Grassland	Three-River Headwaters Region	2010	146.66	CASA	Wo et al., 2014
Grassland	Qinghai-Tibetan PlateauQTP	2005-2008	135.00	GLO-PEM	Chen et al., 2012
Grassland	<u>QTPQinghai-Tibetan Plateau</u>	2001-2017	221.16	MODIS product	Zhang et al., 2021

				(MOD17A3)	
Alpine grassland	Three-River Headwaters Region	2004-2008	129.41	CASA	Cai et al., 2013
Alpine grassland	Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau	1982-2009	120.80	CASA	Zhang et al., 2014
Alpine grassland	Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau	1982-1999	80.00	CASA	Piao and Fang, 2002
Alpine meadow	Three-River Headwaters Region	2004-2008	188.95	CASA	Cai et al., 2013
Alpine steppe	Source Regions of Yangtze and Yellow Rivers	2000–2004	79.34	MODIS product (MOD17A3)	Guo et al., 2006
Alpine steppe-meadow	China	2004–2005	109.03	CASA	Wang et al., 2017
Alpine meadows and tundra	China	1982–1999	137.00	CASA	Fang et al., 2003
Alpine meadows and tundra	China	1997	131.00	CASA	Piao et al.,, 2001
All vegetation	Source Region of Yangtze River	2000-2014	100.00	CASA	Yuan et al., 2021
All vegetation	<u>QTPQinghai-Tibetan Plateau</u>	2012-2014	175.10	Biome-BGC	Sun et al., 2017
All vegetation	QTPQinghai-Tibetan Plateau	2012	208.20	Biome-BGC	Li et al., 2020
All vegetation	<u>QTPQinghai-Tibetan Plateau</u>	1982-1999	125.00	CASA	Piao et al., 2006
All vegetation	Qinghai Lake Basin	2000-2012	161.01	CASA	Zhang et al., 2015
All vegetation	Qinghai Lake Basin	2001-2011	168.03	CASA	Qiao and Guo, 2017